

# LINEAR ALGEBRA: LECTURE 14

LEO GOLDBAKHER

We began by proving our conjecture from last time.

**Proposition 1.** *Given two linear maps  $f, g : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ . Then*

$$\det(f \circ g) = (\det f)(\det g).$$

*Proof.* Since  $f$  and  $g$  are linear, we can write them as matrices, say,

$$f = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad g = \begin{pmatrix} \ell & m \\ n & p \end{pmatrix}$$

It follows from our earlier work that  $f \circ g$  is also a linear map, and has the matrix

$$f \circ g = \begin{pmatrix} a\ell + bn & am + bp \\ c\ell + dn & cm + dp \end{pmatrix}$$

Thus we have

$$\det f = ad - bc \quad \det g = \ell p - mn \quad \det(f \circ g) = (a\ell + bn)(cm + dp) - (am + bp)(c\ell + dn)$$

A straightforward computation verifies the identity  $\det(f \circ g) = (\det f)(\det g)$ .  $\square$

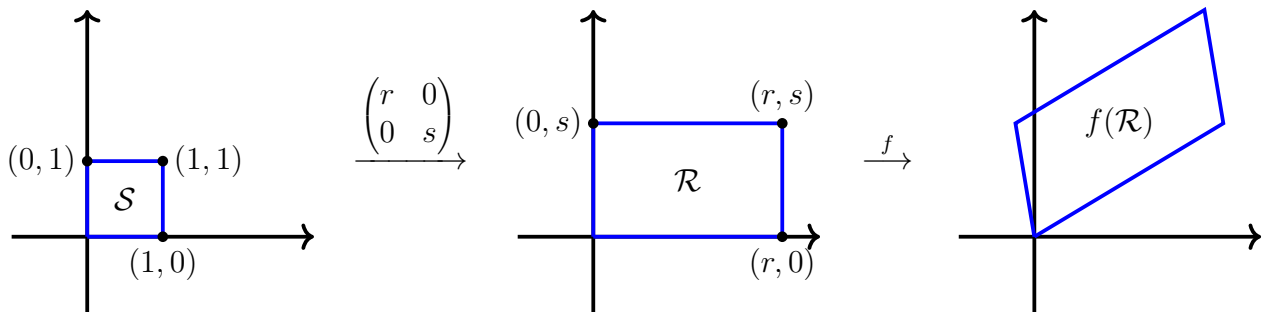
Recall from last lecture that we asserted (without proof) that the quantity  $\det f$  determines how  $f$  scales area. Thus far we've rigorously proved only one special case of this: that the image under  $f$  of  $S$  (the unit square with lower left corner at the origin) has area  $\det f$ . We now use the proposition above to generalize this a bit:

**Proposition 2.** *Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  is a linear map. Then*

$$\text{area } f(\mathcal{R}) = (\det f) \cdot \text{area } \mathcal{R}$$

where  $\mathcal{R}$  denotes the  $r \times s$  rectangle with lower left corner at the origin.

The proof is most easily understood via the illustration below:



*Proof of Proposition.* We first observe that  $\mathcal{R}$  is the image of the unit square  $\mathcal{S}$  under a pretty simple linear map:

$$\mathcal{R} = \begin{pmatrix} r & 0 \\ 0 & s \end{pmatrix} \mathcal{S}.$$

It follows that

$$f(\mathcal{R}) = f \circ \begin{pmatrix} r & 0 \\ 0 & s \end{pmatrix} \mathcal{S}.$$

Using Proposition 13.1 and Proposition 1, we see that

$$\begin{aligned}\text{area } f(\mathcal{R}) &= \det \left( f \circ \begin{pmatrix} r & 0 \\ 0 & s \end{pmatrix} \right) = (\det f) \cdot \det \begin{pmatrix} r & 0 \\ 0 & s \end{pmatrix} \\ &= (\det f) \cdot rs = (\det f) \cdot \text{area } \mathcal{R}\end{aligned}$$

□

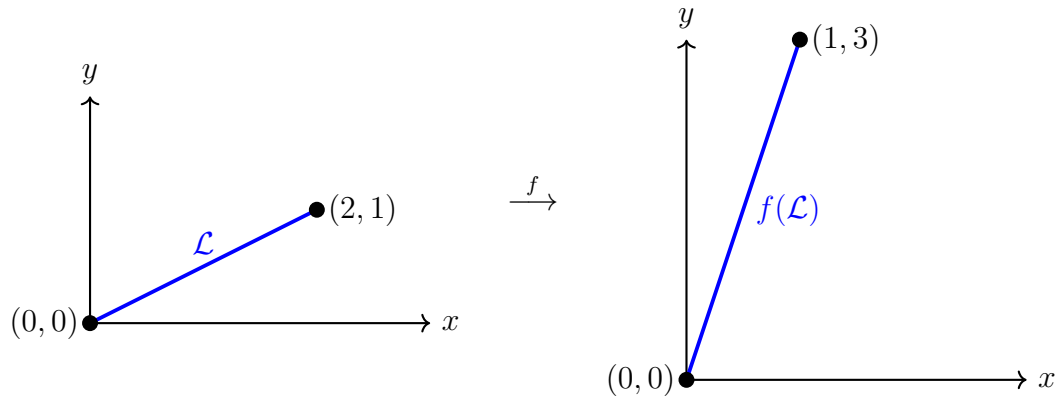
Next, we turned to a new topic:

### VECTORS

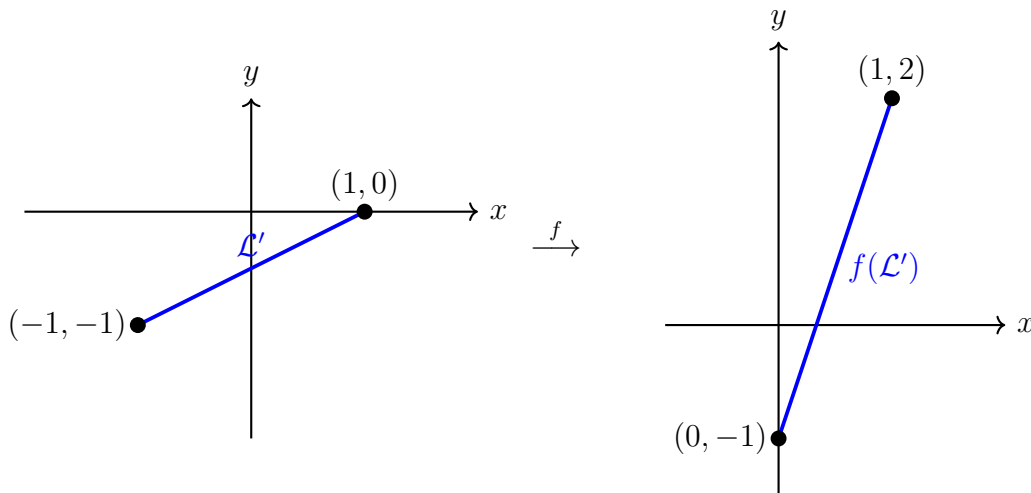
Consider the linear map  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  defined by

$$f(x, y) := (x - y, 2x - y).$$

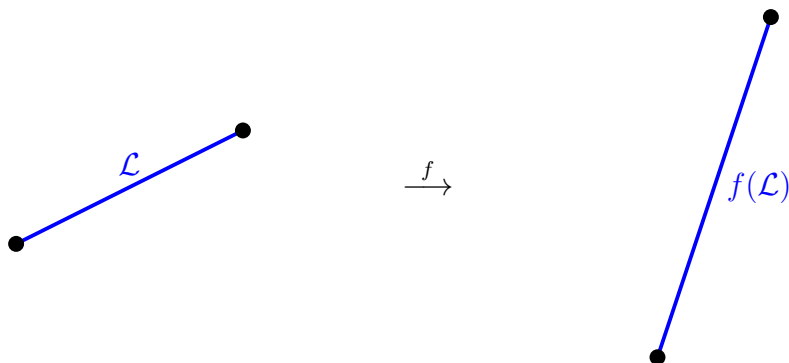
From your homework, you know that  $f$  maps line segments to line segments. For example:



Or another example:



The curious thing about the above is that if we remove the coordinate axes, both of them look like this:



Having removed the axes (and therefore any hope of labeling the endpoints), it's a bit trickier to describe  $\mathcal{L}$ . Certainly, we can no longer write  $\mathcal{L}$  as a set of points, since we have no way to label them! How else can we describe it? Well, we can view  $\mathcal{L}$  as a path from one endpoint to the other, and describe that path. Better yet, all we have to do is to describe the relationship between the two endpoints; once we do that, it's an easy task to connect them with a straight line segment. For example, the relationship between the endpoints of  $\mathcal{L}$  can be described as follows:

*Move 2 units to the right and 1 unit up.*

Note that this instruction *does not depend on where we start*: pick any point  $A$ , follow the instructions above to arrive at a second point  $B$ , and now connect  $A$  to  $B$ , and you have drawn  $\mathcal{L}$ !

Because it's tiresome to write everything in words, we introduce a couple of symbols. Let  $\vec{e}_1$  denote 'move one unit to the right' and  $\vec{e}_2$  denote 'move one unit up'. (The arrows are there to remind you that these variables aren't numbers or points, but instead are a direction of motion.) Using this notation, we can write  $\mathcal{L}$  more succinctly as

$$\mathcal{L} = 2\vec{e}_1 + \vec{e}_2.$$

Similarly,

$$f(\mathcal{L}) = \vec{e}_1 + 3\vec{e}_2.$$

Or to put it all in a single equation:

$$f(2\vec{e}_1 + \vec{e}_2) = \vec{e}_1 + 3\vec{e}_2. \tag{\dagger}$$

Now, we haven't actually proved that this is true yet – all we did was to verify this in the two cases of starting point  $(0, 0)$  and starting point  $(-1, -1)$ . By contrast,  $(\dagger)$  asserts a relationship which holds *no matter which starting point you choose*. We will pick this up next time.